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ABSTRACT

This monograph discusses using collaboration and consultation to teach children and youth with emotional and behavioral disorders (EBD) in the general education classroom. After an introductory chapter, Chapter 2, "Collaboration and Consultation: Promises and Limitations," compares collaboration and consultation as they relate to serving students with EBD. The characteristics of the population with EBD and teacher perspectives on the inclusion of students with EBD in general education classes are discussed, including their concerns about the efficacy of collaboration. Chapter 3, "The Role of Functional Assessment in Collaboration and Consultation," explores the emergent practice of functional assessment as an essential tool for effective consultation. The process of functional assessment and functional replacement training are described. Chapter 4, "Guidelines for Consultation," explores practical ways to apply functional assessment procedures in the collaborative consultation processes and describes four interrelated components (ecological factors, longitudinal programming, focused interventions, and reactive strategies) and associated interventions of effective behavioral plans. Chapter 5, "Systems-Level Collaborative Consultation," provides an overview of the procedures and processes that characterize positive behavior support for all students. The role of the special educator in achieving a collaborative and comprehensive systems-level approach to educating students with EBD is highlighted. (CR)

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Individual & Systemic Approaches to Collaboration & Consultation

on Behalf of Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders

Robert A. Gable, George Sugai, Tim Lewis
J. Ron Nelson, Douglas Cheney
Stephen P. Safran, & Joan S. Safran

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From the Second CCBD Mini-Library Series: Successful Interventions for the 21st Century

Individual and Systemic Approaches to Collaboration and Consultation

Lyndal M. Bullock & Robert A. Gable, *Series Editors*

The Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders, *Publisher*

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About the Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders

Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders

CCBD is an international professional organization committed to promoting and facilitating the education and general welfare of children and youth with behavioral and emotional disorders. CCBD, whose members include educators, parents, mental health personnel, and a variety of other professionals, actively pursues quality educational services and program alternatives for persons with behavioral disorders, advocates for the needs of such children and youth, emphasizes research and professional growth as vehicles for better understanding behavioral disorders, and provides professional support for persons who are involved with and serve children and youth with behavioral disorders.

In advocating for the professionals in the field of behavioral disorders, CCBD (a division of The Council for Exceptional Children) endorses the Standards for Professional Practice and Code of Ethics adopted by the Delegate Assembly of The Council for Exceptional Children in 1983.

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Foreword

This is the second mini-library series that addresses the needs of students identified as "seriously emotionally disturbed" or "emotionally/behaviorally disordered." As with the first series, the content stems from selected presentations at an international conference sponsored by the Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders (CCBD). These monographs are also a response to the reality that the number of children and youth who evidence challenging behavior is growing. These students manifest a range of social, academic, and behavior problems that test the skills of even the most capable classroom teachers. Educators and other professionals are struggling to find ways to deal successfully with the mounting challenges these students present.

Fortunately, as the number of problems increases, so too does the body of accumulated literature on practices of proven effectiveness for students with emotional/behavioral disorders (EBD). Drawing upon the expertise of CCBD members, we have assembled a seven-volume series of monographs that delve into some of the specific areas and programs for students with EBD and the education professionals who work with them:

- *Alternative Programs for Students with Social, Emotional, or Behavioral Problems*
  Mary Magee Quinn and Robert B. Rutherford, Jr.
- *Curriculum and Instruction Practices for Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders*
  Rex E. Schmid and William Evans, Editors

- *Developing Personal and Interpersonal Responsibility in Children and Youth with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders*
  Sylvia Rockwell, Santa Cuccio, Beth Kirtley, and Gwen Smith
- *Developing Social Competence in Children and Youth with Challenging Behaviors*
  Kristine J. Melloy, Carol A. Davis, Joseph H. Wehby, Francie R. Murry, and Jennifer Leiber
- *Enhancing Self-Respect: A Challenge for Teachers of Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders*
  Ann Fitzsimons-Lovett
- *Individual and Systemic Approaches to Collaboration and Consultation on Behalf of Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders*
  Robert A. Gable, George Sugai, Tim Lewis, J. Ron Nelson, Douglas Cheney, Stephen P. Safran, and Joan S. Safran
- *Teaching Children and Youth Self-Control: Applications of Perceptual Control Theory*
  John W. Maag

In these seven monographs, we have attempted to bring together information that addresses the needs of general and special educators, administrators, and other professionals who face the myriad challenges of children and youth at risk for or with EBD. We are grateful for the contributions of the monograph authors and hopeful that their efforts will prove useful to you in your work on behalf of students with EBD.

Lyndal M. Bullock
University of North Texas

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Series Editors

1 Introduction

Today, teachers faced with a difficult classroom situation can seek advice and support from their colleagues through a variety of collaborative or consultative arrangements. The emergence of professional collaboration or consultation as legitimate service options represents a significant departure from past educational practices and stems largely from the growing diversity in the schools. A burgeoning number of students with disabilities now receive at least some instruction alongside students without disabilities (U.S. Department of Education, 1995). Many other students "fail between the categories" but still require differentiated instruction to succeed. Taken together, these students present challenges that have led many schools to introduce collaboration or consultation into the classroom.

A modest body of research documents the positive effects of teacher collaboration, with the bulk of the studies dealing with students with mild learning problems (e.g., Chalfant & Pysh, 1989; Johnson & Pugach, 1991). By comparison, there is less evidence of successful collaboration on behalf of students with more serious learning and/or behavior problems. Students identified as emotionally/behaviorally disordered (EBD) who may be appropriate candidates usually require elaborate interventions to maintain satisfactory regular classroom performance (Gable, Hendrickson, & Rutherford, 1991). Unfortunately, relatively few general education classrooms operate in a

way that supports inclusionary instruction of students with EBD (Kauffman, Lloyd, Baker, & Riedel, 1995). The problem is exacerbated by the fact that some collaborative arrangements may not be powerful enough to successfully maintain student classroom learning and adjustment. To successfully instruct some students classified as EBD, regular classroom teachers may need the backing of an expert consultant, a behavioral support team, or both (e.g., Sugai & Tindal, 1993). Accordingly, education professionals need to find ways to deliver student support more effectively and efficiently (Sugai & Horner, 1996) and to practically and routinely share strategies that work with regular classroom teachers (Sugai, Bullis, & Cumblad, 1997).

In this monograph, we first compare collaboration and consultation as they relate to serving students with EBD. Next, we explore the emergent practice of functional assessment as an essential tool for effective consultation. Then, we discuss intervention options that afford positive support for students with challenging behavior — at the individual and the systems level. Finally, we argue that to effectively serving students with EBD, a systemic approach to collaboration and consultation needs to be developed.

Collaboration and Consultation: Promises and Limitations

2

There is mounting pressure to serve students with disabilities — including students with EBD — on a "stay-put" basis in the regular classroom. Given the myriad of challenges inherent in that undertaking, many general educators are turning to their colleagues for support and assistance. Teacher collaboration, which emphasizes collegiality and egalitarian themes such as parity and shared responsibility, is especially popular (Friend & Cook, 1996). However, according to critics, many who advocate collaboration emphasize the "style" of professional interaction at the expense of student outcomes (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1992). Because, by definition, students with EBD display high rates of inappropriate behavior, the question arises: Are collaboration and consultation realistic with these students? In this chapter, we attempt to shed some light on the issues surrounding this complicated question by examining the promises and limitations of collaboration and consultation on behalf of students with EBD.

Contrasting Collaboration and Consultation

In recent years, a number of collaborative arrangements have emerged, each predicated on a certain philosophy and guided by a

particular set of practices. Although there is some overlap, collaboration versus consultation does differ according to skill requirements, participant roles and relationships, fidelity of treatment outcomes, and even the behaviors of concern (e.g., Fuchs, Fuchs, & Bahr, 1990; Laycock, Gable, & Korinek, 1991). For example, interpersonal collaboration stresses shared responsibility and co-ownership of problem behavior and "direct interaction between two coequal parties voluntarily engaged in shared decision making as they work toward a common goal" (Friend & Cook, 1996, p. 6).

In contrast, behavioral consultation is "a structured series of interactions or problem-solving steps that occur between two or more individuals" (Sugai & Tindal, 1993, p. 7). The behavioral consultation process is largely predetermined, with emphasis on problem identification and student outcomes rather than on the style of interaction (Bergan & Tombari, 1976; Fuchs & Fuchs, 1992; Safran & Safran, 1996). Finally, the literature indicates that behavioral consultation reflects more of an expert model in which the consultant can dictate the flow and content of verbal communication (Erchul & Chewning, 1990).

The EBD Population: How Does It Differ?

Three major trends in the identification and placement of students with EBD influence collaboration and consultation practices. First, the number of students designated EBD substantially underestimates the actual incidence. A total of 0.89% of all public school students have been identified as EBD (U.S. Department of Education, 1995), far less than the estimates of 3% to 5% by some experts (e.g., Kauffman, 1997). The second distinguishing characteristic of students with EBD is that they tend to be identified at an older age relative to other disabilities. Only about 17% of students with EBD are identified by age 9 and almost 60% are served at the middle and high school level (U.S. Department of Education, 1995).

Third, placements of students with EBD usually are in more restrictive settings than for other disability groups. While almost 40% of all students with disabilities receive most of their instruction in regu-

lar classrooms, less than 20% of students with EBD are integrated. And of those who are not integrated, over three times as many students with EBD (percentage wise) are in separate public education facilities than for all other disability groups combined (U.S. Department of Education, 1995).

A look at identification and placement tells only part of the story regarding students with EBD in general education classes. Many students identified with mild to moderate disabilities, where behavior is the primary reason for special education identification, are taught in inclusive settings. Additional students at risk for EBD are assisted through prereferral consultation (or intervention assistance), although the available evidence suggests that greater numbers of students with academic difficulties receive assistance than students at risk for EBD (Del'Homme, Kasari, Forness, & Bagley, 1996). Others are assisted by special education teachers via team teaching, consultation, or both. However, many students receive little or no support in the general education classroom (Kauffman et al., 1995).

According to the literature, few general education classrooms operate in a way that promotes an inclusive education, and few general education teachers possess the skills required to deal with students with EBD. It is not surprising, therefore, that students with challenging behavior are often rejected in mainstream settings (e.g., Gable, Hendrickson, & Rutherford, 1991; Kauffman et al., 1995; Kauffman & Wong, 1991).

Teacher Perspectives on Students with EBD

To examine some aspects of mainstream collaboration and consultation, we informally observed and interviewed three teachers, with a combined total of over 50 years of service, who work in programs that serve students with EBD. Through a combination of team teaching, consultation, collaboration, and pull-out instruction, each teacher works with students at risk for and students with behavioral or academic difficulties or both. Two of the teachers have primary responsibility for elementary students with EBD while the third teaches at the secondary level. One teacher noted that, although few students

in that program were identified as EBD, many others labeled mildly mentally retarded or learning disabled or deemed "at risk" could appropriately be classified as EBD.

In addressing the question of including students with challenging behaviors in general education classrooms, even if behaviors alone and not labels are examined, inclusion is a daunting task. It becomes "doable" only through mutual support and collaboration among education personnel. Including students with behavior problems in general education occurs, however, at some cost (a) to students' development of basic, functional, and/or social skills and (b) to the finite amount of resources available for those with more severe EBD. All three teachers agreed that services generally are diluted because of their broadened responsibilities. Those students with more severe EBD, for whom direct services are critical, often are sent to more restrictive placements. Consistent with the accumulated research, teachers we interviewed reported that regular classroom teachers are less accepting of students labeled EBD, less willing to impose limits, and more prone to "let them slide." Students who exhibit similar behaviors but who do not have the label engender a greater sense of teacher ownership and responsibility.

A critical issue addressed in the literature relates to acceptance of students with EBD in inclusive settings. According to the teachers with whom we spoke and as it relates to mild or moderate behavioral difficulties, student acceptance has as much to do with teacher personality and philosophy as student conduct. Those teachers who accept responsibility for all student learning work as diligently with students with challenging behaviors as they do with others with mild to moderate cognitive disabilities. And teachers with more flexible and collegial styles generally welcome collaborative efforts, particularly joint planning and team teaching. Other teachers, while accepting of students, prefer a more expert, consultative approach. The secondary teacher we observed operates almost exclusively according to an expert consultation model — giving teachers management plans, reformulating tests to preclude student frustration, advising teachers on how best to handle problem behavior consistently. This consultation "on the run" suits the secondary setting: multiple

teachers who deal with 130 students daily and who consequently value efficiency above all else (Safran & Safran, 1996). Not surprisingly, when teachers receive services that address their needs, students have a greater chance of success.

The two elementary teachers spoke of the hurdles they encounter when collaborating on this level. One elementary teacher described two students, of similar severity and type of behavioral problems, in two different classrooms receiving equal support. One student was progressing splendidly; the other was in great distress, despite the assistance of a full-time aide. The student experiencing success was in a classroom with a general education teacher who collaborated well with the special education teacher (a colleague of the one we interviewed). In fact for the last three years of their collaboration, students have succeeded in this grade. Yet the same students, with the same collaboration support, have been judged by the next grade's teachers as unable to participate successfully in the general education classroom. Thus, both teacher and student behavior can influence the outcome of collaboration and consultation.

All three teachers with whom we spoke expressed some concern about the efficacy of collaboration on behalf of some students with EBD. They also were united in their vehement belief that, for students who engage in highly disruptive classroom behavior, regular pull-out services are essential. They felt that the feasibility of collaboration and consultation on behalf of students with EBD likely hinges on the severity of the presenting problems, the amount of support provided to the student, and placement with the best suited general education teacher. When problem behavior becomes too severe, even effective collaborative partnerships or expert consultation approaches likely will fail and a more restrictive classroom placement is justified (Cheney, 1994).

Conclusion

With the current fervor surrounding inclusion, collaboration and consultation have become common practices in many schools. Questions remain, however, about whether current practices serve stu-

dents with EBD well. Our own experience mirrors the available research that a teacher's individual style and philosophy, his or her knowledge of behavioral practices, as well as the situation itself, may have as great an impact on student success as the collaboration or consultation model used. Success can be found with teachers who are more cooperative and less territorial, are willing to engage in joint problem solving, modify their instruction and management practices, and regularly seek advice from special educators. Teachers whose personal styles are more rigid find ways to avoid collaborating and refuse to accept ownership of students with EBD; the label, then, provides an excuse for failure.

In all, there are legitimate reasons for school personnel to resist placement in general education of students with EBD. The many-sided learning and behavior problems of students with EBD have a way of precluding visions of full inclusion — with or without collaboration or consultation. When support in inclusive settings is feasible, research and experience dictate that efforts should not be limited to collaboration alone (e.g., teacher assistance teams, peer collaboration).

Students with EBD generally require complex and intrusive interventions — interventions that test the ability of even the most skilled classroom teachers (e.g., Cheney & Muscott, 1996; Gable et al., 1991). Oftentimes, this means that expert consultation may be needed (Sugai & Tindal, 1993). Some general education teachers, responsible for large numbers of students, accept and make good use of consultation to facilitate inclusive instruction; others oppose it. In the end, effectively serving students with EBD in mainstream settings demands that both the potential and the limitations of teacher collaboration and consultation be recognized and dealt with.

The Role of Functional Assessment in Collaboration and Consultation 3

With the rising popularity of collaboration and consultation, a variety of new strategies and procedures have begun to take hold. One strategy reported in the research literature and receiving increased attention is *functional assessment*. Authorities argue that functional assessment is essential to behavioral consultation and have urged practitioners to incorporate it into the practice of collaboration and consultation (Gresham, 1991). This chapter focuses on the emergent role of functional assessment with regard to students with EBD. Discussion begins with an overview of functional assessment and its current practice. Next, some of the major issues associated with functional assessment are highlighted. Finally, we offer some ways to strengthen the practice of functional assessment with students with EBD.

In the past, behavioral treatment of students with EBD primarily relied on teacher manipulation of various contingency arrangements (e.g., social reinforcement, token economies, contracts). Intervention focused mainly on the problem behavior itself. More recently, there

has been an increased effort to identify the person or environmental determinants of the behavior by means of functional assessment. According to Karsh, Repp, Dahlquist, and Munk (1995), the value of functional assessment is that treatment effectiveness increases if the treatment matches the function or, as Wood (1994) put it, satisfies the same need as the problem behavior.

In carrying out functional assessment, education professionals attempt to identify relationships between person or environmental events and the occurrence (or nonoccurrence) of problem behavior (Dunlap et al., 1993). This requires identification of the factors that (a) account for a large amount of variance in the occurrence of a problem behavior, (b) can be controlled and manipulated, and (c) are associated with the behavior of a particular student (Gresham, 1991). This knowledge increases the education professional's ability to predict the conditions under which the problem behavior is likely to reoccur which, in turn, facilitates the design of a more effective and efficient intervention plan (Gable, 1996).

The Process of Functional Assessment

There are various ways to assess the relationship between a problem behavior and the person or environmental conditions that likely are maintaining the behavior. For instance, indirect or respondent methods of assessment consist of rating scales, checklists, questionnaires, and interviews (e.g., Durand, 1990; Lawry, Storey, & Danko, 1993; Lewis, Scott, & Sugai, 1994). Durand (1990) drew up a Student Motivation Scale to identify variables that might maintain severe behavior problems among students with sensory impairments. Checklists often are comprised of a series of person or environmental events that occur on a regular basis at the classroom level (e.g., task demands, transition routine). Other attempts to obtain information on conditions associated with problem behaviors have focused on verbal interviews (e.g., Lawry et al., 1993).

For the most part, interviews have been conducted with teachers (or other adults) with direct experience with the student. However, there is reason to believe that students themselves can shed light on the

causes and functions of their problem behavior and should be interviewed as well (Reed, Thomas, Sprague, & Horner, 1997). Problems of students with EBD often relate to social incompetence or other skill deficits, which can make it difficult to determine the exact function of the behavior (Reed et al., 1997). Engaging students in the assessment process can produce useful information not otherwise available.

Direct methods of assessment include the use of antecedent-response-consequence (ARC) records, conventional observation systems, and scatter plots (e.g., Gable, 1996). Use of ARC records allows teachers to capture a naturalistic account of situational factors that surround a problem behavior. By comparison, a scatter plot can be used to observe and chart the correlation between the occurrence of specific classroom structural and/or instructional variables (e.g., teacher lecture, cooperative learning activity) and specific student behavior (e.g., on task, disruptive). In some cases, indirect methods are used to narrow the focus: A questionnaire or interview might precede direct observation. By collecting information from multiple sources (e.g., teacher and student interviews, classroom observations), a more complete and accurate picture of the problem situation emerges than would be created from only a single source of information.

Assessment of Setting Events

A major goal of functional assessment is to gain knowledge of conditional or *setting events*. Setting events do not directly control behavior; rather, they increase the likelihood that certain behaviors will occur because of the influence the events exert over stimulus-response relations. Setting events may occur within the same setting and at the same time as the problem behavior (e.g., a teacher admonishes a student for not paying attention). Setting events may precede and overlap specific stimulus and response events (e.g., the student responds with "so what," to which the teacher threatens to take away recess). Also, setting events may be temporally and contextually distant from a problem behavior but still be functionally related to it. Thus, an argument at the bus stop can set the stage for a verbal outburst in class (e.g., Gable, 1996; Hendrickson, Shores, &

Gable, 1987). Viewed together, this information is integral to the development of a sound intervention plan.

The Function of Behavior

In conducting a functional assessment, the goal is to identify reoccurring sequences of behavior (Iwata, Vollmer, & Zarcone, 1990). For example, is the problem behavior more likely to occur when certain academic tasks are presented? Do peers typically respond to problem behavior by laughing? Does the teacher attend to problem behavior at higher rates than appropriate behavior? Does the problem behavior allow the student to avoid the assigned task? Based on repeated observations of the problem behavior in relation to particular antecedent or consequent stimuli, the communicative intent, function, or need satisfied by the behavior can be established (e.g., Dunlap et al., 1993; Lewis & Sugai, 1996b; Wood, 1994).

To reduce problem behavior to its basic functions, behavior either "gets" something (i.e., reinforcing stimuli) or works to "avoid" something (i.e., aversive stimuli). It is important to recognize that what is aversive or reinforcing to a particular student is defined by action and effect — not by any preconceived assumptions. That is, if a stimulus is presented (action) following a behavior and that behavior continues or increases (effect), a reinforcing stimulus was presented. For example, if during reading the teacher repeatedly attends to the problem behavior (e.g., "turn around," "stop talking," "leave your workbook alone") or peers attend to it (e.g., laugh, verbally respond, watch) or both, the student's problem behavior is being reinforced (i.e., teacher and peers are giving something that increases or maintains problem behavior). By repeatedly attending to the student — albeit with what most would consider negative attention or an aversive — the teacher has inadvertently strengthened the problem behavior.

In contrast, if the teacher's response typically is to remove (action) the student from the group following inappropriate behavior and that behavior continues or increases (effect), then the student's problem behavior serves an "escape" function. While the teacher may think that sending the student to the office or placing her or him in

the hall will "punish" the student and thereby reduce the problem, what the teacher inadvertently has taught the student is how to avoid tasks by engaging in inappropriate behavior.

Recent studies have increased professional understanding of why students with EBD engage in frequent bouts of inappropriate behavior. A growing body of evidence suggests that problem behavior serves one of five functions:

1. *Access* attention from adults, peers, or both (Lewis & Sugai, 1996b).
2. *Access* tangible objects or preferred activities (Lewis & Sugai, 1996b).
3. *Access* internal or external stimulation (O'Neill, Horner, Albin, Storey, & Sprague, 1990).
4. *Avoid* interaction with adults, peers, or both (Shores, Gunter, Denny, & Jack, 1993).
5. *Avoid* tasks or responsibilities (Dunlap et al., 1993; Hendrickson, Gable, Novak, & Peck, 1996).

It is also important to understand that the same problem behavior may serve single or multiple functions for a student.

Functional Replacement Training

Once the function of the problem behavior has been determined, the next step is to develop an intervention plan. Because the purpose of functional assessment is to determine why a student engages in a particular behavior, any intervention developed should allow the student to continue to meet his or her needs (i.e., function) but only by engaging in appropriate behavior. Interventions should focus on both the student and the teaching environment by (a) teaching an appropriate alternative behavior to replace the problem behavior and (b) not allowing the problem behavior to result in the previous outcome, that is, concurrently ensuring that the replacement behavior is more efficient than the problem behavior (Horner & Day, 1991). The goal is to teach the student that the targeted appropriate behavior will access the same outcome, ideally in a more efficient manner.

Teaching Alternative Behavior

Prior to teaching an alternative behavior, teachers must determine if the student has the behavior in his or her repertoire. If the student does have the behavior, it may be sufficient to simply review specific expected behavior(s) with the student. However, if the student does not possess the behavior, it should be directly taught through one-on-one or small-group instruction, with the specific skills tailored to meet each student's individual needs. Because many students with EBD lack social competence, the essential features of functional replacement training in the area of social skills are illustrated next.

Problem behavior receives attention. Social skills instruction should focus on accessing attention appropriately. In the previous reading-group example, the teacher would review critical skills for the group and provide examples of appropriate and inappropriate behavior. If the behavior is maintained by peer attention, the teacher should focus on teaching the student how and when to access attention appropriately.

Problem behavior escapes an aversive. Social skills instruction should focus on removing or avoiding aversive situations or interactions. For instance, if the student is engaging in problem behavior to escape the reading group, the teacher can instruct the student on skills to access assistance (e.g., ask for help, work with peer tutors). However, if the student engages in problem behavior to avoid interactions with peers, the focus would shift to conflict-resolution and problem-solving skills.

Modifying the Teaching Environment

At the same time or shortly following instruction, the teacher should provide students opportunities to practice newly acquired skills in their natural context and continue these opportunities throughout the school day. To increase student success, the teacher should alter the teaching environment to increase the effectiveness of the prosocial behavior while simultaneously weakening the effectiveness of the problem behavior (Northup et al., 1994). It must be remembered that many students with EBD have long learning histories with problem

behavior(s); it will take time and repeated opportunities to learn that the replacement behavior will satisfy their needs.

Problem behavior receives attention. Following social skills instruction, the teacher should alter the environment to weaken the problem behavior and to increase the efficiency of the replacement response. This is accomplished through differential reinforcement of incompatible behavior (DRI). If teacher attention maintains the problem behavior, the teacher should withhold all attention for problem behavior and increase rates of attention to the targeted replacement behavior. If peers are maintaining the problem behavior, they can be enlisted, via incentives, to also "ignore" the student's inappropriate behavior and to implement a DRI procedure (Lewis & Sugai, 1996a). If the teacher is unable to prevent peers from attending to the target student, a mediating strategy, such as self-management, can be taught to assist the student in delaying access to peer attention.

Problem behavior escapes an aversive. Once the student is fluent with the prosocial escape skills, the teacher should not let the student avoid a task (or situation) with problem behavior. Rather, escape should only be possible when the student engages in the appropriate skill (e.g., requests assistance to complete difficult tasks). Because some students have a history of noncompliant behavior, it is essential to structure the environment or tasks to promote high rates of engaged time. This increases the likelihood of the student using appropriate escape behaviors. Finally, additional instructional strategies, such as providing choice (Peck et al., 1996), can also be used to increase appropriate student behavior while reducing problematic escape-motivated behavior.

Conclusion

As stated earlier, the purpose of functional assessment is to determine why students engage in problem behavior. Through interviews, checklists, questionnaires, direct observation, scatter plots, and/or direct manipulation of instructional variables, the focus of functional assessment is on the relationship between the problem behavior and the key person or environmental conditions.

Knowledge of reoccurring predictable chains of behavior and environmental variables allows practitioners to develop hypotheses regarding the function (or communicative intent) of problem behavior. Based on these hypotheses, the education professional can devise an intervention plan to teach the student an alternative, more appropriate behavior that results in the same outcome as the problem behavior (e.g., get or avoid).

At the same time, to increase the efficiency of the appropriate behavior, both opportunities and incentives must be provided for the student to practice the new behavior and try to decrease the strength of the problem behavior. In succeeding chapters, we explore more fully intervention options that stem from functional assessment within the context of professional collaboration and consultation.

Guidelines for Consultation 4

By most accounts, problem behavior is one of the most pressing issues facing today's schools (Nelson, 1996). Teachers at all grade levels are struggling to deal with the escalating level of disruptive behavior in their classrooms. Thus, increasing numbers of school personnel are working with colleagues to develop strategies to enhance the educational outcomes of students with problem behaviors. As indicated in Chapter 3, recent approaches to behavioral interventions have changed dramatically following a shift in thinking about the nature of problem behavior (e.g., Gable, 1996; Horner, Day, Sprague, O'Brien, & Heathfield, 1991; Iwata et al., 1990). Accordingly, consultants no longer need to rely on a "grab bag" of interventions when working with colleagues to develop sound intervention plans. Instead, strategies can be drawn from a menu of interventions designed specifically to match the function of a problem behavior.

As with any issue addressed through collaboration or consultation, the basis for developing an effective program for combatting problem behavior starts with problem identification. It is important to define the problem behavior in objective and discrete terms. This ensures that both the consultant and teacher are focusing on the same behavior and facilitates the selection of an effective intervention plan.

We realize that some functional assessment procedures are not always feasible for practitioners to apply when developing an inter-

vention plan. Teachers generally are unwilling to "experimentally" manipulate specific person or environmental conditions to test a hypothesis regarding the function of a problem behavior. A viable alternative is to identify the conditions under which the disruptive behavior occurs (e.g., functional interviews, scatter plots) and to formulate a hypothesis regarding the function of the behavior. Teachers can then use these data to generate interventions that likely relate to the function of a problem behavior without testing the hypothesis through manipulating various social and environmental conditions.

As stated previously, the primary goal of functional assessment is to determine the function of the student's behavior so that an effective intervention plan can be developed. The function of problem behavior can be categorized into three primary behavior types: (a) attention-seeking, (b) escape or avoidance, and (c) sensory stimulation. Also, there are some problem behaviors maintained by more than one function (e.g., attention-seeking and escape or avoidance). The next section highlights the so-called establishing conditions for each of these types of behaviors.

Establishing Conditions for Problem Behavior

For Attention-Seeking Behavior

According to the literature, inappropriate student acts expressed as social reactions are generally referred to as *attention-seeking behavior.* When a student receives attention contingent on exhibiting a problem behavior, this problem behavior is positively reinforced. Attention directed to the student can take many forms including verbalizations (e.g., reprimands, sympathy), physical contact (e.g., restraint, consolation), and facial expressions (e.g., eye contact, frowns, smiles). The establishing conditions for attention-seeking behavior are periods of low adult or peer attention and the presence of environmental stimuli that signal nonavailability of attention (e.g., teacher's preoccupation with an activity or another student).

Students who exhibit attention-seeking behavior frequently initiate social interactions with adults and peers when attention is unavail-

able or when it appears to be unavailable. These social inactions may be both positive and negative. That is, students may view a social initiation as positive while their teachers view it as negative. These same students display high levels of problem behavior under conditions of low adult or peer attention whereas they tend to display low levels of problem behavior under conditions of high adult or peer attention and/or in situations when attention is available.

For Escape or Avoidance Behavior

Research and experience indicate that social, academic, and/or vocational tasks are aversive to many students with EBD. Not surprisingly, the presentation of such tasks often elicits responses that cause teachers to terminate or postpone demands on students for performance. Accordingly, problem behavior may be negatively reinforced when it allows the student to escape or avoid teacher demands. Students who exhibit escape or avoidance behavior frequently exhibit such problem behavior when an aversive or low-interest task is presented. By comparison, they display low levels of problem behavior when a reinforcing or high-interest task is presented.

For Sensory Stimulation/Automatic Reinforcement Behavior

Some problem behavior of students with EBD is maintained by sensory or perceptual consequences that automatically accompany the behavior — as when the behavior is positively reinforced by its stimulating consequences (e.g., physical movement). In contrast, if the consequences (e.g., pain) alleviate or mask a physiologic condition, then the problem behavior may be negatively reinforced. It is important for education professionals to recognize that some problem behavior may be biologic in nature. Students who exhibit sensory stimulation/automatic reinforcement behavior frequently exhibit problem behavior regardless of person or environmental conditions. For this reason, caution must be exercised when interpreting the results of a functional assessment exclusively from an operant perspective. In some cases, a more comprehensive behavioral and medical evaluation should be conducted, before an intervention plan is formulated and recommended.

For Multiple Function Behavior

Sometimes, the problem behavior of students with EBD has multiple functions depending on the establishing conditions in effect at the time. The behavior may gain the student attention when a teacher is preoccupied, provide an escape when task demands are imposed, or satisfy the senses in the absence of alternative stimulation. Intervention plans, therefore, must be carefully designed and implemented to address each of the functions controlling student behavior.

Intervention Options

For education professionals charged with carrying out collaboration and consultation, it is critical to select intervention strategies acceptable to colleagues. Although the specific strategies differ for each type of problem behavior, we suggest using four interrelated components to create intervention plans for dealing with problem behavior: (a) ecological factors, (b) longitudinal programming, (c) focused interventions, and (d) reactive strategies.

Ecological Factors

Ecological factors are those physical, interpersonal, and programmatic factors that provide a better fit with the student's characteristics and needs. Although some specific adjustments can be made for individual students, some general environmental conditions can also be altered to reduce problem behavior regardless of its function. Key ecological factors that can be manipulated include the physical arrangement of desks in the classroom; the orderliness of the room; positioning of students' seating; and interpersonal interactions between teacher and student. The physical arrangement and orderliness of the classroom are factors that all teachers are familiar with. The other two factors are explored next.

Positioning of an attention-seeking student in close physical proximity to the teacher is critical for several reasons. First, increasing teacher proximity may prevent behavior problems from occurring by allowing the teacher to easily interrupt the behavior chain if the student should start to misbehave. Second, teacher proximity may

increase the student's attention to instruction. If a student is focused on the instructional activity, he or she is less likely to exhibit problem behavior. Finally, close physical proximity will enable the teacher to interact more frequently with the student (e.g., offer verbal or nonverbal praise or feedback).

It is perhaps only natural that the demanding nature of students with EBD can cause teachers to avoid interacting with them. Too often, the social interactions of regular classroom teachers then begin to center only on the student's misbehavior — causing the teacher to rely on reactive strategies. Yet maintaining high rates of prosocial and instructional interactions with attention-seeking students is crucial to reducing or eliminating the problem behavior. Accordingly, teachers should be encouraged to find ways to increase their positive interactions with these students. Providing students with EBD high rates of social and instructional interactions can (a) reduce the need for attention, (b) provide opportunities for additional monitoring, (c) increase the student's opportunities to access positive reinforcement, and (d) reduce the need for inappropriate sensory stimulation.

Finally, teachers sometimes are unaware of the effects their own behavior can have on student behavior. For example, teachers' response patterns sometimes can promote and maintain student attention-seeking behavior. When necessary, teachers should be provided knowledge of reactive strategies that do not provide the student with attention for inappropriate behavior and that help the student return to the appropriate task. For example, rather than using repeated reprimands, a teacher might be encouraged to ask a student a question that requires the student to respond.

Longitudinal Programming

Longitudinal programming involves teaching the student skills and competencies to facilitate behavior change for the purpose of academic and social success. Far too often, behavioral interventions focus only on the problem behavior and fail to address the skills and competencies necessary for students with EBD to function successfully in school. As a result, the problem behavior persists because

the student lacks the fundamental skills and competencies to make behavioral improvements. Little or no improvement will be made when students lack these skills and competencies. The most common types of longitudinal programming include (a) basic academic skills instruction, (b) social skills training, (c) social problem solving, (d) anger management and conflict resolution, (e) counseling services, and (f) medical services.

Focused Interventions

Another aspect of the consultation process relates to focused interventions, interventions that center on the replacement behavior (e.g., increasing the number of math problems completed in one hour) rather than on the problem behavior itself. Focused interventions include direct, positive intervention strategies designed to help students change their behavior. Focused interventions often are necessary to initially manage problem behavior; however, as we have indicated, emphasis should be on those ecological factors and positive programming strategies that will produce desired outcomes. Emphasis is on positive strategies, rather than on more traditional punitive strategies (e.g., response cost).

While numerous forms of focused interventions are available, we have found that teachers are most accepting of self-management and behavioral contracts. Teachers will implement these interventions more frequently and consistently, which is critical to behavioral management in mainstream settings.

Self-management. Self-management refers to the performance of specified behaviors that produce changes in the environment. Person and environmental interactions ultimately control behavior, but self-management does allow individuals to manipulate environmental variables (Rhode, Morgan, & Young, 1983). In other words, self-management procedures enable the student to manage the procedure rather than an adult doing so, as in the case of externally managed interventions. The general steps in developing self-management procedures include

1. *Select a general behavior.* Choose a general behavior upon which to focus intervention. For example, improving attendance, completing assignments, bringing materials to class, doing seat work, making friends, introducing self, and responding to teasing are logical targets for teacher intervention.

2. *Describe the behavior.* Read over the list of actions and choose one that occurs frequently. (High-frequency activities are the easiest to monitor.) Work on one behavior at a time and describe the specific components of the behavior in observable terms. Describe what is meant by attendance, completing assignments, bringing materials, or whichever behavior you have selected. Keep it simple — about four to eight components. The counting period is the amount of time spent counting the behavior. This will vary depending on the behavior. For example, 50 minutes may be appropriate for counting the number of math problems completed whereas 8 hours (an entire school day) may be appropriate to count when measuring on-time arrival at all classes.

3. *Set the performance standard.* How many math problems should be completed in 50 minutes? Standards may vary from student to student and should reflect a level of performance substantially different from current performance although nevertheless obtainable by the student. The standards can be revised as the student experiences success.

4. *Count and record.* Count and record the number of times correct behavior occurs each day. Many different recording forms can be used and can be designed to cover daily, weekly, or monthly use. It is best to choose one that is appropriate to the age of the student and to the behavior being measured. Laminating the master card may also prove helpful.

5. *Teach the student.* The same general direct-instruction procedures (i.e., rationale, description, modeling, guided practice, independent practice) used to teach other academic and social behaviors should be used to teach the selected self-management procedure.

Behavioral Contracts. Contracting is a popular way to enter into an agreement with students concerning their behavior (e.g., an agreement for a student to raise his or her hand before speaking) or academic performance (e.g., completing 20 math problems before recess). Contracts encourage accountability by specifying in writing the student's expected behaviors (Walker, 1995). Important things to consider when designing a behavioral contract include

1. *The behavior to be contracted.* The teacher needs to talk with the student to clarify which behavior needs to be changed.
2. *The increase of the desired behavior.* The student and teacher need to agree on the steps involved in the correct behavior. It is important to specify the exact behavior clearly so that anyone can observe and count the behavior and so that the student can set realistic goals for himself or herself.
3. *The conditions for reinforcement.* Clearly and simply describe the responsibilities of the student. Make the initial requirements easy for the student to achieve.
4. *The consequences.* Positive reinforcements are given for successes; penalties are spelled out for lack of the desired behavior. We suggest that the student be allowed to choose a reinforcer that she or he finds appealing regardless of whether it holds any appeal to the teacher. Involve the student in selecting the possible rewards from a variety of activities which can be easily administered and easily faded (e.g., activities rather than candy). Penalties are usually implicit. That is, if the student does not perform the contracted behavior, then he or she does not receive the stated reward. The penalty should be strong enough to make the student want to avoid it but not so severe as to make the contracting process undesirable.
5. *The limits and conditions which govern the contract.* Contracts traditionally specify those behaviors expected of the student while teacher responsibilities are only implied. However, specifying the teacher and parent responsibilities can be helpful and interesting. It is crucial that parents fulfill their part of the agreement or the system will lose its effectiveness. Teachers should include the date when the contract will be reviewed.

6. *Things to check if a contract is not changing behavior.* Did the student have a say in the contract? Were behaviors specified clearly? Was the contract written so that not too many behaviors were required for the reward?

Reactive Strategies

Reactive strategies include situational management techniques that teachers can introduce when a student engages in negative behavior. It is important for consultants to discuss which reactive strategies should be used. Teachers cannot be expected to maintain an intervention if they do not have effective reactive strategies to apply when problem behavior occurs. Situation-management techniques help ensure that the teacher's response does not strengthen the problem behavior. These techniques also are designed to reduce the intensity of the behavior and help de-fuse the situation. Effective reactive strategies that teachers can easily implement in the classroom include (a) planned ignoring, (b) physical proximity, (c) asking for a response, (d) start-up request, (e) redirection, and (f) time-out.

Primary Goal of Behavioral Intervention for Different Behavior Functions

As stated earlier, attention-seeking behavior often occurs during periods of low adult or peer attention and in the presence of stimuli signaling the nonavailability of attention, such as when the teacher is preoccupied with an activity or another student. Although working with students who exhibit attention-seeking behavior is a tremendous challenge, a variety of effective intervention options are available for general education teachers. The primary goal of an effective behavioral program for attention-seeking behavior is to (a) provide attention discontinuous to occurrences of the behavior and (b) extinguish the behavior should it occur. Focus should be on providing attention when the student is acting appropriately.

Also as previously mentioned, students with EBD frequently exhibit escape or avoidance behavior when an aversive or low-interest task is presented and low levels of problem behavior when given a rein-

forcing or high-interest task. Teachers often indicate that they "cannot get through" to students exhibiting escape or avoidance behavior. These students — more than students who exhibit attention-seeking and sensory behavior — directly affect the teacher's behavior, making them especially difficult to manage. Consequently, the primary goal of an effective behavioral program for escape or avoidance behavior is (a) to prevent escape or avoidance of performance demands by suspending performance demands linked to the problem behavior and (b) to gradually increase performance demands without concomitant occurrences of problem behavior. Because the problem behavior is maintained by negative reinforcement, the focus of the behavior program should be on preventing the occurrence of the problem. Unfortunately, experience indicates that providing powerful enough consequences to stop the occurrence of this type of behavior is extremely difficult, especially in mainstream settings.

Sensory stimulation/automatic reinforcement behavior occurs regardless of ecological variables. Students engaging in these behaviors tend to display high rates of problem behavior under a variety of conditions. Even so, the effective management of environmental variables is critical. The primary goal of a behavior change program for sensory stimulation/automatic reinforcement behavior is to provide the student alternative stimulation. That stimulation should not be associated with the problem behavior, and the problem behavior, should it occur, should be extinguished through *response-blocking strategies.* However, an alternative stimulation needs to be provided rather than simply putting the behavior on sensory extinction. Sometimes increasing the level of stimulation in the classroom environment via social interactions, music, and visual displays can reduce or eliminate problem behavior that is maintained by sensory consequences.

As we mentioned, sometimes problem behavior has multiple functions depending on the establishing conditions in effect at a given time. For example, the behavior may gain attention when a teacher is preoccupied and escape or avoid a task when demands are presented. This two-fold function requires that teacher interventions be implemented to address each of the controlling aspects of the be-

havior. We suggest that education professionals review the ecological, longitudinal programming, focused-intervention training, and reactive strategies for attention-seeking, escape/avoidance, and sensory/automatic reinforcement when creating a program for problem behavior that serves multiple functions for the student.

Treatment Implementation and Evaluation

The final step in executing effective behavioral interventions is to develop an implementation plan. The consultant should work closely with the teacher to ensure that the plan is being implemented effectively. Close contact will also enable the consultant to detect problems early and to make adjustments in the plan. The effectiveness of the plan should be evaluated through tracking and recording behavior on a progress chart. Together, teachers must decide whether the observed behavior reflects maintenance, an increase, or a decrease in the desired behavior. The behavioral intervention plan can be adjusted as needed to suit the situation.

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to explore practical ways to apply functional assessment procedures in the collaborative consultation process and to describe four interrelated components and associated interventions of effective behavioral plans. Research and experience has shown that the use of procedures that consider the function of a student's problem behavior produce more positive outcomes. Intervention plans that account for the function of student behavior are especially important because teachers will continue to be frustrated if consultants simply draw from a "grab bag" of strategies to confront behavior problems of students with EBD. Functional assessment procedures enable consultants to select strategies from a menu of interventions designed specifically for a given function of behavior.

Systems-Level Collaborative Consultation

5

Students with EBD come from contexts and with behavioral repertoires that clash with the norms of the school and community. Students with significant behavior problems frequently experience

- Home situations in which behavior management is inconsistent and behavior monitoring is lacking (e.g., Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992).
- Neighborhoods in which negative peer networks dominate and prosocial interactions are limited (e.g., Walker, Colvin, & Ramsey, 1995).
- Schools in which rules and consequences are unclear, discipline is punitive, academic failure high, and individualized programming nonexistent (e.g., Colvin, Kameenui, & Sugai, 1993; Mayer, 1995).

Education personnel are in a unique position to provide support to students who evidence challenging behavior. Schools are places where teaching is emphasized, a predictable schedule of activities is provided, trained personnel are present, and appropriate peer and adult models are available. Schools can respond proactively to the challenges of students with EBD by providing positive-behavior support (Colvin et al., 1993; Sugai & Horner, 1996; Walker et al., 1995).

In this chapter, we provide an overview of the procedures and processes that characterize a systems-level, collaborative consultation approach to educating students with EBD. Discussion covers the context for this approach, the procedural features of a proactive systems-level approach, the process features of a positive-behavior-support approach, and the role of the special educator as expert consultant.

Context

The traditional approach to school discipline and behavior and classroom management has consisted of providing students and staff members with statements about school expectations and violations and administering strict sanctions for rule violations. Educators assume that by sending students a clear and strong message, reoccurrences of problem behavior will be inhibited. And indeed that assumption holds true for most students in the general population. These students respond positively to this approach because their prior experiences have enabled them to learn from simple, universal interventions and negative consequences. For other students — including students with EBD — these negative sanctions have little effect and, in fact, can actually elevate problem behaviors.

Thus, the school experiences provided to "all" students may not be effective or appropriate for "all" of them. By definition, students with EBD do not respond to universal intervention programs (i.e., school-wide discipline codes of conduct, school-wide social skills interventions, sanction-based behavior-control procedures). In fact, their failure to respond often serves as a measure of the severity and persistence of their problem behaviors and underscores the need for special support services. Oftentimes, these students require specially designed and individualized interventions. The role of the special educator, in conjunction with other building and district personnel, is to provide consultation and/or actually orchestrate these interventions. However, if the "host" school environment lacks the structures and capacities to support these efforts, the delivery of services becomes inefficient, reactive, and ineffective. The expert consultation process quickly becomes dominated by requests to test and place, to "put out fires" (e.g., crisis management, intervention and place-

ment modifications), or to remove (or exclude) students from their current classroom placements.

Standard responses to failed interventions are to exclude students with significant behavior problems from mainstream classroom settings, to increase the use of punishment (Mayer, 1995; Mayer & Sulzer-Azaroff, 1990), or both. Unfortunately, punishment-based interventions are among the least effective responses (along with psychotherapy and counseling) to violent problem behavior (Tolan & Guerra, 1994). In fact, if problem behavior is suppressed without an accompanying system of positive-behavior support, increases in aggression, vandalism, truancy, tardiness, and school dropouts are likely to occur (Mayer, 1995; Mayer & Sulzer-Azaroff, 1990).

Fortunately, yet ironically, as the incidence and prevalence of student problem behavior have increased, so too have the quantity and quality of behaviorally based interventions. For instance, it is generally accepted that social skills instruction, instructional and curricular adaptations, and behaviorally based interventions are among the most effective interventions for educating students with severe problem behavior (e.g., Tolan & Guerra, 1994; Walker et al., 1995). It is also widely agreed that schools are the most logical settings in which to improve the social competence of students and enhance their long-term lifestyle outcomes. For many students, schools are the most predictable and prosocial environments available. Schools provide opportunities for positive academic and social engagement; present many positive adult and peer role models; and can convene a high concentration of mental health, behavioral, and social support services. In sum, schools have much to offer in the education of students with EBD (Cheney, 1994; Nelson, 1996).

In further considering the needs of students with EBD, we would argue that efforts to build positive behavioral procedures have too often not included building effective *systems* of positive-behavior support. To be proactive (i.e., positive and preventive), effective, and efficient, interventions for students with EBD must be supported and maintained by a collaborative, comprehensive, and positive school-wide system of behavior support. Thus, school personnel must

strive to match the specificity of their behavioral programming to the intensity and severity of the problem behavior displayed by students.

To address the behavior-support needs of all students — including students with EBD — within a school context, we advocate a systems approach. This approach considers four major school subsystems.

- The first subsystem is represented by the collection of procedures and processes intended for all students, all staff members, and all settings
- The second subsystem focuses on specific settings that exist within the school environment — lunchroom, playground, hallways, buses, assemblies, and so on.
- The third subsystem addresses the processes and procedures of the classroom where individual teachers structure learning opportunities and operationalize school-wide expectations to accommodate their classroom routines and structures.
- The final subsystem is comprised of the processes and procedures for high-intensity, specially designed individualized interventions for the estimated 3% to 7% of students who present the most challenging problem behaviors, that is, students at risk for or with EBD.

Procedures for Positive-Behavior Support

As discussed in Chapter 4, there are numerous approaches to teaching social skills, making academic and curricular modifications, and developing intervention plans (e.g., Alberto & Troutman, 1995; Gable, 1996; Kameenui & Darch, 1995; Kerr & Nelson, 1998; Nelson, 1996; Wolery, Bailey, & Sugai, 1988). At the school-wide, specific-setting, and classroom levels, these strategies can be organized into six basic components: (a) a clear and positive statement of purpose, (b) a set of positively stated expectations for prosocial behavior, (c) procedures for teaching school-wide expectations, (d) a continuum of procedures for encouraging displays of school-wide expectations, (e) a continuum of procedures for discouraging violations of school-wide expectations, and (f) a method for monitoring implementation and effectiveness of

these procedures (Colvin et al., 1993; Colvin, Sugai, & Kameenui, 1994).

At the individual student level, effective procedures also have been identified. For example, in previous chapters, we discussed functional assessment strategies, social skill instruction, and focused interventions for self-management training. However, by definition, students with significant behavior problems have demonstrated resistance to universal interventions and are not likely to be "fixed" by a single application of an intervention. Responding to the intense challenges presented by these students requires time, personnel, behavioral expertise, and sustained and collaborative commitment and effort. Most important, to implement the procedures of an individual support system effectively, the school-wide behavior-support system must be in place and functioning efficiently.

Processes of Effective Collaborative Behavior Support

Having strategies, policies, and procedures for promoting prosocial behavior is essential; however, processes for the smooth operation of positive-behavior-support systems must be in place and sustained over time. Schools represent complex environments that are not easily influenced by isolated, one-time efforts. Instead, we would argue that substantive and sustained change in problem behavior requires a systems-level effort that matches the intensity level of the problem. These efforts can be organized into a series of steps that represent the overall positive-behavior-support process. In general, this process includes four major features — the need for behavior support, staff commitment to the process, priority in the school improvement plan, and active administrative involvement. Without these first four prerequisites in place, the procedures and remaining process steps are unlikely to be efficient and, ultimately, effective. Second, a school-wide team (commonly called the discipline or behavior committee, behavior support team, or school climate committee) must be established and be given the authority and responsibility to manage the behavior-support process. Individual teachers or administrators do

not have the capacity or resources to oversee a comprehensive system of school-wide behavior support.

Third, all members of the school staff must establish a uniform commitment to the positive-behavior-support process, and a clear statement of responsibilities for all staff members is needed. Finally, an ongoing planning and implementation process must be established and implemented. This process is comprised of specific action plans, ongoing staff training, consistent implementation, and regular monitoring of implementation effectiveness.

For the efficient, effective, and sustained provision of specially designed, individualized interventions that are required for students with EBD (i.e., individual student level), the proactive, collaborative, and comprehensive school-wide system just described must be established. If the school-wide system is not adequately meeting the academic and behavioral needs of the larger student body, then it is unlikely that enough resources, personnel, and time can be directed to meet the intensive needs of students with EBD.

A technology for educating students with EBD is well known (e.g., Kauffman, 1997; Kerr & Nelson, 1998; Morgan & Jenson, 1988; Peacock Hill Working Group, 1991; Rosenberg, Wilson, Maheady, & Sindelar, 1997; Sugai & Tindal, 1993). It includes functional assessment-based intervention, social skills instruction (including self- and peer-management), direct instruction of academics, curricular accommodations, crisis and emergency management, formative performance assessment and evaluation, and collaborative teaming. The real challenge is to develop and maintain an effective and efficient school environment that will support the delivery of these practices. Without that support, these practices will be no more effective than general intervention strategies. For this reason, a contextual "goodness-of-fit" between the problem context and behavior support must be established.

Role of the Special Educator

To achieve a collaborative and comprehensive systems-level approach to educating students with EBD, special educators will need to ex-

pand their role from direct service provider to include responsibilities that focus on buildings and districts. With this role expansion, special educators will be asked to become involved in the development of effective host environments designed to support the use of preferred practices and strategies. This expansion may seem overwhelming given the traditional responsibilities of teachers of students with EBD. However, the greater efficiency, clarity, and predictability of a functioning comprehensive system of behavioral support should make that job more effective and efficient.

Traditionally, special educators have provided direct service to students and assistance to families of students with EBD. More recently, responsibilities have enlarged to include collaboration with support service personnel (e.g., mental health or juvenile corrections workers) and consultation with general education teachers, administrators, and support staff. Within the context of a systems-level approach to behavior support, roles and responsibilities of special educators would be further expanded to the building and district levels.

Building Level

At the individual building level, special educators must become active participants in the development, implementation, and evaluation of the school-wide behavior-support (discipline) system. Within the approach just presented, three expanded roles must be considered. First, teachers of students with EBD must become active members of the school-wide behavior-support team. As team members, special educators bring (a) specialized instructional, curriculum, and behavioral skills and (b) knowledge about a continuum of alternative educational programming options. More importantly, special educators can shape how behavior supports are provided to all students, which could affect the incidence and prevalence of students with EBD.

Second, special educators must actively consult with individual teachers, grade-level teams, and/or academic departments as they confront behavior- and classroom-management challenges. By becoming familiar with and getting involved in the provision of classroom-level behavior support, special educators can influence current prac-

tice, learn about presenting problems, affect the incidence and prevalence of students with problem behavior, and refine the continuum of service delivery options for students with EBD.

Finally, special educators must respond to the needs of individual students with severe behavior problems who are not or have not been identified as eligible for special education services. This occurs through expert consultation or in structures like intervention assistance teams and consists mainly of providing technical assistance and support. In this role, special educators also can monitor the quality of intervention planning and implementation.

District Level

Because many school systems lack clear policy statements about how school-wide positive-behavior support looks and is provided, many students experience difficult transitions between elementary and middle schools and between middle and high schools. Systems-focused special educators can have important influences at the district level in three ways. First, special educators can shape district policies that direct how a full continuum of positive behavior support is developed and implemented within and across schools in both general and special education settings. Policy is vital to improve consistency, accountability, use of preferred practice, communications, and information management.

Second, special educators can assist in the development and operation of district-wide behavior-support teams. These teams would oversee implementation of district policies and procedures relating to provision of proactive behavior support for all students, teachers, administrators, and support staff. The team's role would be to deliver an integrated general and special education service delivery package within the school-wide, classroom, nonclassroom, and individual systems. Special educators can bring their expertise regarding curriculum and instruction and behavior management to the development of procedural guidelines for proactive school-wide discipline, effective classroom-behavior and instructional management, and individual student interventions.

Finally, special educators can assist in the development and operation of individual-building behavior-support teams. By bringing consistent and specialized knowledge and skills to individual buildings, greater uniformity and efficiency of treatment can be achieved. In addition, a district-wide network can facilitate the sharing of information and increase the procedural efficiency and effectiveness of services to students with EBD.

Summary

The behavior-support needs of students with EBD pose a tremendous challenge, one that requires a sustained commitment to a best practices effort. In this chapter, we have provided an overview of the procedures and processes that characterize positive behavior support for all students — with emphasis on a systemic, collaborative, and consultative approach. In this and previous chapters, we have highlighted a number of important points that relate to collaboration and consultation on behalf of students with EBD:

1. Schools play a significant role in the facilitation and improvement of prosocial behavior of all students.
2. Both individual- and systems-level approaches are necessary to address the continuum of learning and behavior needs of students in today's schools.
3. Positive-behavior-support procedures exist and should be given high priority in school improvement efforts.
4. Procedural choices should be based on a functional assessment of the nature and level of the problem behavior.
5. Collaboration and consultation are essential to addressing the diverse needs of students with EBD and are linked to establishing a comprehensive approach to behavior support.
6. Procedural effectiveness and implementation success are affected directly by the processes and structures that comprise the student-support systems within the schools.
7. The roles and responsibilities of special educators need to be expanded at the building- and district-wide levels in order to

improve the efficiency and effectiveness with which academic and social behavior instruction is provided to all students, especially those with EBD.

8. The development, adoption, and implementation of preferred practices is unlikely unless or until schools are structured to be receptive, efficient, and supportive of that effort.

6 Conclusion

Today, collaboration in the schools is a popular way to address the learning and behavior needs of an increasingly diverse population of students. Notwithstanding their widespread acceptance, various aspects of collaboration and consultation are only in a formative stage — including the use of functional assessment to create pragmatic interventions for dealing with severe behavior problems. In each of the preceding chapters, we have sought to identify those practices we know are consistent with successful collaboration and consultation on behalf of students with EBD.

While we support the use of collaboration and consultation in relationship to "stay-put" programming, we do not believe that all students with disabilities, including students with EBD, are equally well served in mainstream settings. As the Executive Committee of the Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders (CCBD) has asserted, "an appropriate education for some students with EBD is so complex and intrusive that it mitigates against general education classroom implementation" (Gable, 1994, p. 1). In the end, the diverse needs of this heterogeneous population of students dictate that decisions about placement and instruction of students with EBD must be made on a pupil-specific basis.

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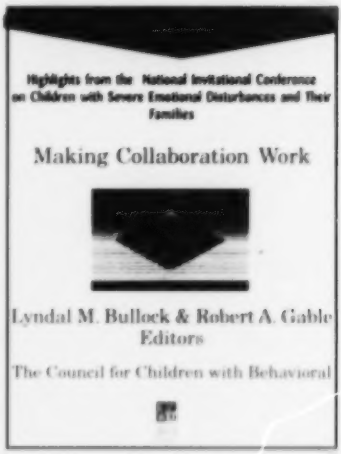
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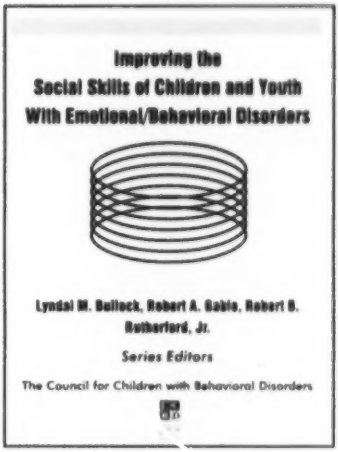
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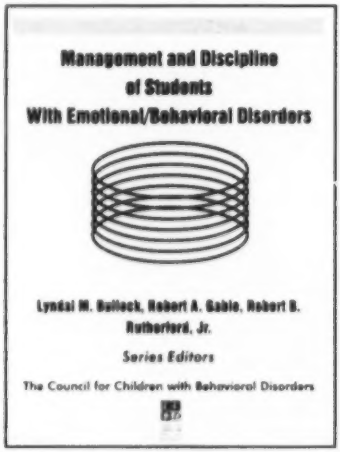
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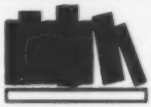

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